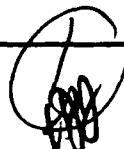





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SCHOOL OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

FEAR OF CRIME IN THE MILITARY HOUSING COMMUNITY:
A LOOK AT TWO BASES IN THE SOUTHEASTERN U.S.

By
CAPTAIN MICHAEL I. TRAPP

A Thesis submitted to the School of Criminology
and Criminal Justice in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

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This work is dedicated to my wife, Linda. The finest daughter
a man could ever ask for, Amber, and my son and best pal,
Aaron.

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Dr Marc Gertz has been much more than a Major Professor. He has been a teacher, in the truest sense of the word, a counsellor, with the patience of Job and the wisdom of Solomon, and is and will remain a lifelong friend. "Friendship without self-interest is one of the rare and beautiful things of life". James Francis Byrnes

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FEAR OF CRIME IN THE MILITARY HOUSING COMMUNITY:

A LOOK AT TWO BASES IN THE SOUTHEASTERN U.S.

Michael I. Trapp, Master of Science
Florida State University, 1993
Major Professor, Marc G. Gertz, Ph.D.

Survey data from a sample of housing residents of two United States Air Force installations located in the Southeastern United States are used to examine relationships among victimization experience, perceived vulnerability, vicarious experiences, perceived incivilities, confidence in the police and the fear of crime.

This study draws upon extensive Fear of Crime literature to employ the most current conceptual measures of fear and variables believed to affect fear. Several unique factors found in military family housing communities provided an ideal place to test these relationships including: absence of poverty and unemployment, youth of the population, and lower crime rates and disorder than found in the general population.

Despite these unique qualities, enough variation was present to successfully test a fear of crime model. As expected, fear levels were found to be much lower within the military community. When fear of off base areas was explored, levels were found approaching those expected in the civilian

population. Findings generally support the hypotheses. Victimization, higher perceived vulnerability and incivilities and greater vicarious experience correlated with higher fear levels while a higher confidence in the police correlated with a lower level of fear.

Findings indicate that policy makers can affect fear levels by continuing attempts at reducing crime levels, maintaining order in military housing communities, keeping community members aware of actual rather than sensationalized crime levels and maintaining a visible, professional, police force that inspires community confidence.

INTRODUCTION

Fear of crime is a social problem affecting the lives of much of our population. Some estimates put the percentage of persons who altered their behavior due to fear of crime as high as 60% (Donnelly, 1988; Gomme, 1986; Toseland, 1982). Media accounts paint a picture of frightened citizens barricaded inside homes equipped with high-tech locks and alarm systems. The Legislature in the State of Florida is currently debating new laws aimed at the relatively new predatory crimes of armed car-jacking and break-in/armed robbery in homes. The problem is not unique to the United States.

Though the majority of research on the subject has been done in the United States, Canadian, British and French studies have found fear of crime to be a significant social problem (Box et al., 1988; Levy et al., 1987; Gomme, 1986). No segment of the population is immune. Fear is thought of as an urban problem, but research has found the problem extends to suburban (Donnelly, 1988) and rural (Krannich et al., 1982) communities. This fear is an important social issue having impact on both individuals and communities. For individuals, fear of crime serves to reduce the level of interpersonal

trust. It can result in individuals staying home more, spending money on security systems, avoiding public transportation, curtailing work and modifying social patterns, or even avoiding walking down their own streets. For communities, this fear can transform some areas into "no-go" places, harm local businesses, and lead to general deterioration of the neighborhood. Even more importantly, this fear can undermine confidence in the criminal justice system, and reduce the appeal of alternatives to incarceration and punishment (Box et al, 1988).

Twenty years of fear of crime research has disclosed some correlates of fear, but no general theories and little cumulative knowledge. Most of the research remains exploratory.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Fear of crime in America is more than just "fear" of "crime", many have found that it is more a part of the general urban unease, or the "disorder perspective" (Taylor and Hale, 1980; Garofalo, 1978; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980). Trying to deal with fear in the community, police departments have believed their job was to fight serious crime, but have been frustrated by lack of success. Wilson and Kelling (1982) in "Broken Windows" point out that citizens are concerned about crime, but many are more concerned about daily incivilities that destroy neighborhoods. Fear and crime do not always correspond. Crime levels are low in some neighborhoods, but fear high. Other studies (e.g. Baumer, 1978; Donnelly, 1988) have pointed out that most people are not really even in a position to have accurate information about the relative danger of their neighborhoods. Baumer (1978), in his review of the literature, found that in the absence of reliable information, people make inferences based upon visible signs of disorder and decay. Researchers in the 1980s began to discover that fear is often more closely correlated with disorder than with crime (Moore and Kelling, 1983).

Skogan and Maxfield (1981) isolate four factors

associated with fear levels: victimization, perceived vulnerability, vicarious experiences and neighborhood conditions (Donnelly, 1988). Other researchers refer to neighborhood conditions as "the level of incivility" or level of disorder (e.g., Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Lewis and Salem, 1987; Liska et al., 1982). Box et al. (1988) also examined the confidence in the police as a factor. (Also see Krahn and Kennedy, 1985; Brown and Wykoff, 1987; Cordner 1986.) This examination of fear of crime will focus on victimization, perceived vulnerability, vicarious experiences, perception of incivility and confidence in the police as the antecedents of fear.

Ideological Approaches

Since the late 1970s, there has been a great deal of both theoretical and policy making attention to the problem of fear of crime. Taylor and Hale (1986) point out that much of the research attention has been focused on solving three "riddles" about fear of crime.

First, the rank ordering of age and sex groups on fear levels is opposite their ordering on victimization rates. Young males are the least afraid, but the most victimized, and older women, are the least victimized, but report the highest fear levels (Hindelang et al., 1978; Gordon et al., 1980; Warr, 1984; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977)

Second, there is little difference in the fear levels between victims and non-victims. Fear levels are higher than

crime rates, even if a large amount of unreported crime is assumed (Donnelly, 1988; Baumer, 1978; Taylor and Hale, 1984). Some researchers have looked for a multiplier, or process operating within the community that might spread the impact of criminal events to those not directly victimized (Taylor and Hale 1984).

Third, the patterning of crime does not have the same pattern as fear. Some studies (e.g., Skogan and Maxfield, 1981) have found actual victims slightly more fearful, but other studies have not found correlation between high crime or victimization rates and increased fear levels. This failure of the level of fear to spatially covary has caused debate over construct validity in surveys (Taylor and Hale, 1984). This could also be a problem caused by differences in the levels of analysis.

While there is a general absence of theories to serve as a guide in the study of fear of crime, there has been a great deal of study, and though primarily exploratory in nature, current literature addresses fear of crime in great detail. Several methodological issues have emerged that bear discussion.

Methodological Issues

Fear of crime research suffers from many of the same problems that afflict much criminological research, primarily, measurement problems which impede the ability to draw reliable conclusions and make useful generalizations (Ferraro and

LaGrange, 1987). Looking at the dependant variable alone, Dubow et al. (1979) argue the term fear of crime often refers to a number of emotional and subjective assessments and reports. They found a problematic lack of consistency and specificity of behavior. So many divergent meanings for the term "fear of crime" can be found that its utility is considered questionable by some researchers (e.g., Ferraro and LaGrange, 1987).

Effectively Measuring Fear of Crime

In the United States, Great Britain and Canada, the most common measure of the fear of crime has been the National Opinion Research Center's (NORC) question, "Is there anywhere near your home, that is, within a mile or so, where you would be afraid to walk alone at night?" or its British Crime Survey (BCS) equivalent, "How safe do you feel walking alone in this area after dark?" (Baumer, 1985; Box et al., 1988; Garofalo, 1979; Liska et al., 1982). Garofalo (1979) and Ferraro and LaGrange (1987) identify at least four problems associated with this measure: (1) the word "crime" is not even mentioned, leaving the thrust of the question more implicit than explicit; (2) the geographical frame of reference is the neighborhood, which means different things to different people; (3) the respondents were asked to think about their perceived safety when "alone at night in their neighborhood" - there are few instances when this occurs; and (4) the part of the question that asks "do you feel or would you feel" mixes

actual with hypothetical assessments of safety which are not necessarily equivalent. Researchers point out two other problems. Ferraro and LaGrange (1987) found that the most commonly used measures fail to differentiate relatively objective risk judgements from more emotional fears. Box et al. (1988, p.343) simply stated the question "may not tap fully the emotional dimensions of fear," though they agreed with Baumer (1985, p. 245) when he stated "some comfort can be found in the consistency provided by the widespread usage of this item". Numerous researchers contend that this question is simply too ambiguous to serve as a valid measure of fear of crime (Garofalo, 1979; Lee, 1982; Taylor and Hale, 1986; Ferraro and LaGrange, 1987; Smith and Hill, 1991a). The measure may serve to inflate fear estimates in some groups, deflate it in others, or fail to measure many dimensions and generally produce results which are misleading.

Measuring Victimization

Smith and Hill (1991a) see the measurement of criminal victimization as problematic due primarily to the limitations of the way the question is asked. The NORC question as well as that of the BCS are biased toward crimes that the public fears most, violent personal victimization, thus failing to measure crimes which happen with the greater frequency, property crime. Most versions of the question simply ask the respondent if they have been the victim of a crime in the previous twelve months. The dichotomous nature of the question

also limits its usefulness.

Measuring Vicarious Victimization Experience

Criminal victimizations which are experienced or shared by sympathetic or imagined participation by others have a number of variations. The two primary are media experiences and the victimization of family members and acquaintances. Media experiences are further broken down into television action/drama programs and news reports and newspaper/magazine reports of crime.

In most previous research the impact of only one facet has been used. Heath, (1984) looked at the impact of newspaper reports as did Liska and Baccaglini (1982). Gunter (1987) examined the effect of television. Few studies have examined the combined effect of vicarious experiences in a multivariate analysis. Box et al., (1988) looked at personal vicarious experiences as part of the victimization measure, but was unable to examine the possible influence on fear of the media because "no suitable item appeared..." in the BCS.

Perceived Vulnerability

After victimization experience, perceived vulnerability has been the most commonly explored predictor of crime. Most often this perceived vulnerability has been associated with the exogenous variables, sex (Braungart et al., 1980; Gordon et al., 1980; LaGrange and Ferraro, 1989; LaGrange et al., 1992; Riger et al., 1978; Smith, 1987; Toseland, 1982; Warr, 1984) and age (Braungart et al., 1980; Box et al., 1988;

Donnelly, 1988; LaGrange and Ferraro, 1989; LaGrange et al., 1992; Warr, 1984). More recent studies have measured this perception with a question or index which allows respondents to estimate their own likelihood of becoming a victim, or their ability to defend themselves or escape (Box et al., 1988; Warr, 1984).

THEORY

Concepts

The principal concepts in the fear of crime literature are exogenous variables: sex, age, income, education, number of persons living in household and ethnicity; and the experience variables: victimization, perceived vulnerability, vicarious victimization experiences, perception of incivility, and confidence in the police (Donnelly, 1988; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Box et al., 1988; Smith and Hill, 1991a; 1991b). The remaining concept is level of fear of crime, as the result of the antecedents previously mentioned. It is accepted that fear is "the emotional dimension of peoples response to crime (Taylor and Hale, 1986, p.153) or the visceral response to possible physical harm and confrontation (see also Dubow et al., 1979).

Victimization

Donnelly (1988) points out that victimization and its effects are complex. Many victims of crime are afraid, however, many non-victims have equal or even higher levels of fear. Much previous research has found some positive correlation between previous victimization and fear (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Gomme, 1986; Garofalo, 1979; Stafford and Galle, 1984; Skogan, 1986). However, some studies (e.g. Taylor and Hale, 1980; Baumer, 1978) have found little

difference in the fear levels of victims and non-victims. Box et al., (1988) found victimization to be negatively related to fear when examined on its own, but positively correlated when combined with the intervening variable of incivilities.

Whether an individual has been the victim of a crime is used in the literature (Stafford and Galle, 1984; Box et. al., 1988). Baumer (1978) suggests that victimization in general does not affect fear levels, but being the victim of a violent personal crime does. Many of the studies on the effect of victimization experience on fear levels suffer from a problem related to the common measure of victimization experience, a dichotomous or additive indication of whether a victimization has occurred. Smith and Hill (1991a) argue that the way in which these questions are asked make them a more valid indicator of personal or violent victimization only, failing to tap the types of victimization that are more likely "by a margin of 10 to 1" to be experienced.

Perceived Vulnerability

The issue of perceived vulnerability was the focus of much research in the 1980s. Women, the elderly, and those living alone far report the highest levels of perceived personal vulnerability (Braungart et al., 1980; Gordon et al., 1980; Warr et al., 1984). Vulnerability can be either physical or social. Donnelly (1984) describes physical vulnerability as openness to attack and powerlessness to resist. Myriad researchers have pointed to women's unique

physical vulnerability to the most dehumanizing of crimes, rape, as a key issue (e.g. Gordon et al, 1980; Warr, 1984; Hindelang, 1978; Donnelly, 1988; Riger et al., 1978). Those who live alone also feel more physically vulnerable (Braungart et al. 1980). Social vulnerability is more the inability to cope with the economic and physical consequences of victimization. Blacks and the poor perceive themselves as personally vulnerable because they tend to live in areas with high rates of crime. Also, medical costs resulting from the injuries, and property losses, will take a greater part of the resources of the poor (Donnelly, 1984).

Vicarious Victimization Experience

Box et al. (1988) generally define vicarious experiences as personal knowledge of victimization and crime. There are two primary sources of vicarious experiences: reports of crime in the print and electronic media and conversations with friends and neighbors (Donnelly, 1984; Box et. al., 1988). Skogan and Maxfield (1981) found that the latter source has a much greater effect on individuals. Media reports tend to be viewed as occurring "out there", not in one's own neighborhood (Donnelly 1984). Research has explored this as the "multiplier" mentioned earlier as a way to explain the disparity between victimization rates and fear of crime levels (Taylor and Hale, 1984).

Level of Incivility

In many recent studies, the level of incivility has

emerged as a key characteristic which affects fear levels (Donnelly, 1988; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Lewis and Salem, 1987). Wilson (1985) argues that people are disturbed when their desire for what they consider proper conduct in public places where they have to live and move is violated. In Lewis and Maxfield's (1980) study, residents of low-crime, high-fear neighborhoods consistently identified conditions of incivility, such as abandoned buildings, loitering teenagers, vandalism and the presence of illegal drugs, as more serious than actual crime itself. People are very concerned with disorder, disorderly people and distasteful, worrisome, though not always unlawful, encounters.

Confidence in the Police

There have been relatively few studies that have examined the effect of confidence in the police on levels of fear. Some studies have found that if people believe their local police department is effective at solving or preventing crimes and apprehending criminals, and they respond quickly and are there when needed, they are less likely to fear crime (Box et al., 1988; Baker et al., 1983; Krahn and Kennedy, 1985). Even among persons who have recently been the crime victims, fear may not develop if the victim believes the criminal will be apprehended and dealt with by the criminal justice system.

Fear of Crime

The most common measure of fear of crime is the

dichotomous response to the NORC question concerning walking near the home after dark, or some variant thereof. As previously mentioned, this measure suffers from conceptual ambiguity and is probably not a good indicator of fear of crime across the lines of sex, age, background, or even neighborhood (Smith and Hill, 1991a; 1991b; Lee, 1982; Taylor and Hale, 1986). It may be measuring completely different underlying constructs for men and women, or for older and younger persons. It has been posited that simply the use of the word "fear" may engender different reactions from men than from women, where a term like "worry" or "concern" might get a different response (Braugart et al., 1980; Riger et al, 1979; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977; Gomme, 1986).

Two additional shortcomings of this line of questioning are akin to a problem found in the measurement of victimization experience. First, this question may concentrate on crimes of a personal nature, at the expense of more commonly committed property crimes, and second, this line of questioning fails to measure the concern over the possible victimization of family members.

A tertiary problem alluded to but not directly discussed in much of the literature is fear or concern once individuals are outside the confines of their own neighborhood.

Propositions

Though the strength of the relationship between victimization experience, vicarious victimization experience,

perception of incivility, confidence in the police and fear of crime is still a subject of debate and research, the vast majority of studies have found a positive relationship existing between each with the exception of confidence in the police.

Most studies have shown, if an individual has been victimized, fear level increases, but not in a general way. Baumer, in his 1978 review of the literature suggested that victimization in general did not affect fear level, but violent personal crime did (also see Donnelly, 1988).

The relationship between vulnerability and fear of crime has been the target of much study. As the perception of an individuals physical and social vulnerability increases, fear level increases (Donnelly, 1988; Braungart et al., 1980). This has been especially effective in explaining the disproportionately high levels of fear reported by women (Gordon et al., 1980; Warr, 1984).

The relationship between vicarious victimization experiences and fear of crime is also expected to be positive. While the reports from friends and neighbors have the greatest effect (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Donnelly, 1984), Box et al. (1988, p. 342) in their study, found that when the media portrays a particular image of crime, i.e., "random choice of victims, normlessness accompanying criminal behavior, and dramatization of events and victimization risks - - it contributes to fear..." (see also Heath, 1984; Garofalo,

1981). Both together have an effect on fear.

While victimization, perception of vulnerability and vicarious victimization experiences are individual concepts, the fourth, level of incivility, occurs in the social context. Various researchers define the facets of incivility differently, but all are in agreement that as the level goes up, in whatever manifestation, the level of fear rises (e.g. Donnelly, 1988; Wilson, 1985; Box et al., 1988; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Liska et al., 1982).

Confidence in the police is expected to have a negative relationship to fear of crime. As persons express higher confidence in the capabilities and presence in their local department, fear levels are expected to be reduced.

Theoretical Rationale

Each of the experience concepts are positively related to the fear of crime, while confidence in the police is negatively related. Research by Donnelly (1988) Box et al. (1988), and Smith and Hill (1991a) is unique in that each looked at the combination of individual and environmental factors as the cause of increased fear levels. Persons who have been the crime victims exhibit somewhat higher fear levels. Some of the possible reasons are personal injury, medical costs, and financial loss. Surprisingly, previous research has shown that victimization was not strongly related to fear (Donnelly, 1988). However, as Baumer (1979) points out, when property crimes are removed from the analysis, the

strength of the relationship grows. When people have been the victims of personal crimes (i.e., rape, robbery, assault), especially within the previous twelve months, there is a stronger positive relationship between victimization and fear, time seems to lessen the effects (Garofalo, 1977; Skogan, 1977; Stafford and Galle, 1984).

Box et al., (1988) show a strong link between victimization and incivilities. Victims who live in neighborhoods with high levels of incivility, show a much higher level of fear and that level stays high for a longer period of time. While persons in other areas seem able to take more precautions after the incident and tend to forget about it after a brief period of time.

Perception of vulnerability leads to fear for a number of reasons. For some, it is a feeling that they are unable to protect themselves either physically or financially. Others feel unable to escape or retreat fast enough. Still others feel they are less able to cope with the physical and emotional results of victimization (Toseland, 1982; Box et al., 1988). A great body of research has identified four main groups that fall into this category of persons more likely to feel vulnerable: Women, the elderly, the poor, and racial minorities (Braungart et. al., 1980; Clarke and Lewis, 1982; Gordon et. al., 1980; Riger, 1978; Warr, 1984, 1985; Baumer, 1977; Taylor and Hale, 1986). Women, the elderly, and those who live alone feel the most physically vulnerable and

powerless to resist (Braungart et al., 1980; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977; Donnelly 1988). Women's unique vulnerability to sexual assault helps explain their much higher fear levels (Warr, 1984; Braungart et. al., 1980; Riger et al., 1978). The high fear levels among minorities and the poor is more often explained as social vulnerability, as they tend to live in higher crime areas (Donnelly, 1988; Gomme 1986; Baumer, 1985; Taylor and Hale, 1986).

Vicarious victimization experiences, or knowledge of crime, has a positive effect on levels of fear. People who hear first hand of crime incidents, particularly within their neighborhood will show an increase in fear for their personal safety (Skogan, 1987; Stafford and Galle, 1984; Box et. al., 1988). Baumer (1978) indicates that the victimization of a friend or neighbor may cause fear either because individuals identify with the victim or simply due to physical proximity. Skogan and Maxfield (1981) and Donnelly (1988) found that for the most part media reports do not affect fear levels. Box et al. (1988) found that reports in the media which portray a particular image of crime, i.e., random victim choice, normlessness of criminal behavior, and dramatization of events and victimization risks, do contribute to fear (also see Garofalo, 1981; Heath, 1984; Hartnagel, 1979). Liska and Baccaglini (1990) found a strong relationship between media reports and fear only for reports of local homicide cases. Heath (1984) and Liska and Baccaglini (1990) found that most

media reports are viewed as being "out there", but, reports of this type can cause some concern for physical safety (also see Baumer, 1978; Box et al., 1988).

Baumer (1978) indicates that most people are not in a position to have reliable information about the relative danger of their neighborhoods. He goes on to say that in this absence, people make inferences about potential danger based on more visible signs of "disorder and decay". A great deal of recent literature has labeled this "disorder perspective" as signs of incivility (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Lewis and Salem, 1987; Wilson, 1985; Donnelly, 1988; Box et. al., 1988). Specifically, fear results from disorder, disorderly people, and distasteful and worrisome encounters (Donnelly, 1988). A myriad of researchers have reported that this disorder perspective causes people to see the neighborhood as unpredictable and threatening (Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Taylor and Hale, 1986; Box et al., 1988; Wilson and Kelling, 1982; Donnelly, 1988; Gomme, 1986).

The confidence persons have in the police who patrol their neighborhoods is also believed to have an impact on fear levels. Much of the evidence concerning the effect that citizen confidence in police organizations has on fear levels is anecdotal. There have been a limited number of studies that have explored this effect. Box et al. (1988) posit that even for those persons who have been victims of a recent crimes, the belief that the criminal will be apprehended and

brought to justice can serve to prevent the genesis of fear in the victim. Krahn and Kennedy (1985) in a Canadian study found no relationship between the size or staffing levels of a police force and fear levels.

While the strength of the relationship varies, there is a positive relationship expected between each of the independent variables and fear of crime, with the exceptions of confidence in the police and the demographic variable education where negative relationships are expected. Using the experience and exogenous variables that have most often been found to affect fear of crime, a working model of these influences is presented in Figure 1.

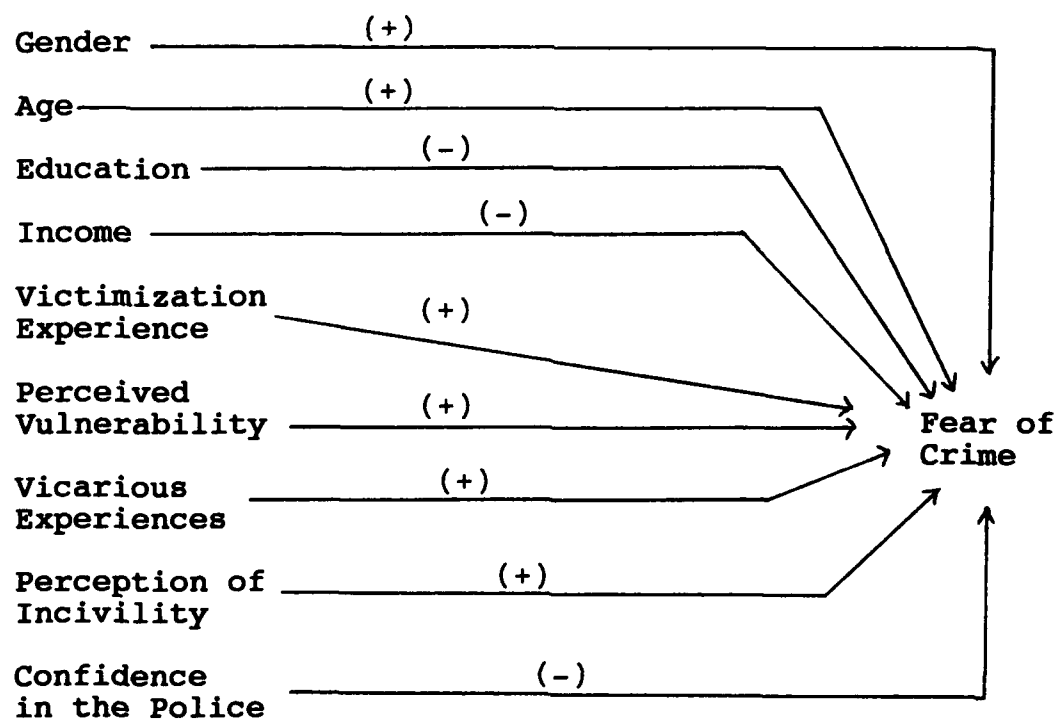


Figure 1. Influences on the Fear of Crime

Operationalization

Demographic variables for this study were gathered in rather traditional ways. Some changes were necessary due to the nature of the military community. The military community does not have persons in age groups above fifty nor persons earning incomes as high as those found in parts of the civilian community. Operationalization of the experience variables however, relies much upon measures found to be valid in previous studies.

Exogenous Variables

The exogenous variables are straightforward. Sex as a natural dichotomy was coded male or female. Household income was measured in \$10,000 dollar increments beginning at "less than 10,000" moving upward to "60,000 or more." Education was coded as 0) some high school 1) High school diploma 2) some college 3) 2 year college degree 4) 4 year college degree 5) some graduate school 6) Master's Degree and 7) Post graduate work. To determine household composition, respondents were asked how many persons, including themselves, lived in the household, with the actual response coded up to five or more. For ethnicity, respondents were asked which category best described their ethnic origin: white, black, hispanic, asian or other. Age was asked as of the respondent's last birthday, giving categories of 18-25, 36-35, 36-45, and over 55. Though studies in communities outside the military have found substantial relationships between fear and age over 60 years

of age, the military community by nature is young with an average retirement age of 42 years. Finally, respondents were asked about the military position of the military member of the household. This, again, was a dichotomous response of officer or enlisted.

Victimization

Baumer (1978) suggested different levels of victimization will have different effects of fear levels. (See also Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Taylor and Hale, 1980; Smith and Hill, 1991a.) For this study, victimization was be measured only if it has occurred in the last twelve months. To overcome the weaknesses of the dichotomous measures of much of the previous research, a sixteen question index was be utilized, with an open ended response to record both the types and the number of victimizations the household has experienced in the previous twelve months. The index is taken from Smith and Hill (1991a; 1991b), and is designed to measure all of the indicators of victimization experience from minor property type crimes, the most commonly occurring, to the most serious crimes of rape and murder. For each of the index questions, possible answers was "No" or "If yes, how many times?" Each of the questions designed to measure property crimes are followed with an example, to clarify the nature of the victimization act being questioned. Personal type crimes are more commonly understood, and graphic representations should not prove necessary. Each of the measures include the initial leader

"During the past twelve months...". Questions to measure property victimization include: Did anyone damage, destroy or attempt to destroy your home or any property around your home? Did anyone steal or try to steal a car, truck, or motorcycle owned by you or other members of your household? Did anyone steal anything from inside your home, such as a stereo, TV, jewelry, gun, or purse, etc.? Did anyone steal anything that is kept outside your home such as a bicycle or a garden hose? Did anyone steal parts attached to a car or truck owned by any member of your household, such as a battery, hubcaps, or a tapedeck? Did you or any member of your household have anything stolen from them while they were away from home, for instance, at work, school, in a theater, in a restaurant, or while traveling? Did you or any member of your household have a purse or wallet snatched or pockets picked? Did you or any member of your household have something stolen from inside a car or truck, such as packages or clothing? Did anyone break into or somehow illegally get into your house, apartment, garage, or another building on your property? Did you find a door jimmied, a lock forced, or other signs of attempted break-in (do not include second home, business property, or camps)?

Respondents were also asked about personal victimizations with the questions: Did anyone take something or attempt to take something directly from you or any member of your household by using force, such as a stick-up, mugging, or

threat? Did anyone beat-up, attack, or hit you or any member of your household? Were you or any member of your household knifed, shot at, or attacked with some other weapon by anyone? Did anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten you or any member of your household with a knife, gun, or some other weapon? Did anyone rape or attempt to rape you or any member of your household? Were any members of your household murdered?

As Smith and Hill (1991a) and Skogan (1986) assert, one event of rape will have more impact on fear levels than multiple thefts from the yard. Keeping this in mind, it was necessary to weight the responses to take this difference into account.

Perception of Vulnerability

Perception of personal vulnerability is a self-report asking respondents to estimate their own ability to defend or flee in the event of personal attacks. In addition, measures of knowledge and proximity of neighbors and or friends, medical insurance, property insurance, and confidence in the police have been used as indicators (Box et al., 1988; Donnelly, 1984; Riger et al., 1978; Hindelang, 1978; Braungart et al., 1980). In the British Crime Survey, respondents were asked to estimate their own risk of being victimized on a six point scale ranging from "certain to" to "certain not to" (Box et al., 1988). For this research, some of these measures are not applicable. All military members and their families are provided full medical coverage including ambulance services;

medical costs are not a concern for members of this group. In addition, if property that is properly secured is stolen, a claim can be made against the government, and the value of stolen property reclaimed. Confidence in the police will be used in this index due to its bearing on this measure. A five question index will be used to measure the perception of vulnerability. The questions will include: I believe that I would be able to protect myself from an attacker. Responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree on a five point scale. If attacked, I believe I would be able to escape. Again a five point scale response. These two questions will measure how individuals view their physical strength or ability to deal with the actuality of a physical attack. How many neighbors would you say you know on a first name basis? The stated number would be recorded up to five or more. the intent of the question is to measure what some researchers have called the level of cohesion in a neighborhood. Box et al., (1988) indicate that persons who do not know their neighbors will feel more isolated and therefore be more prone to fear. Would you rate the confidence you have of the police in your neighborhood as: low, little confidence; medium, some confidence; or high, a lot of confidence? In the final question, respondents are asked to estimate their own risk of being the victim of a crime in the next twelve months on a scale of zero to five with zero being certain they will not be and five being certain to be.

It has been posited that only those persons who feel they are the likely or possible victims of future victimization will have higher levels of fear (Box et al., 1988; Warr and Stafford, 1983).

Vicarious experiences is the third major concept. It also has two primary facets: the media and reports received from friends and neighbors. The latter seems to have the most effect on fear levels (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Taylor and Hale, 1984). Indicators of media effect would be self reports of "news consumption", amount of television news watched, and frequency of newspaper accounts of crime read (Garofalo, 1981). Questions included: Would you say you watch television news... Responses for each of the media consumption questions will range from never to daily on a four point scale. How often do you read stories about crime in the newspaper? and, How often do you watch one or more police/crime shows such as "COPS", "America's Most Wanted", or "FBI: The Untold Stories"?

Conversations with friends and neighbors would be measured with self reports including: "Do you have a friend that has been a victim of a crime?", and, "Has anyone in your neighborhood been a victim of a crime in the last 12 months?" (Donnelly, 1984; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). The impact of these reports will be measured with the following questions: Do you know anyone in your neighborhood that has been the victim of a crime in the last twelve months? Has a member of

your family, not living with you, been the victim of a violent crime in the last twelve months? Has a personal friend or co-worker been the victim of a violent crime in the last twelve months? The effect of this indirect type of victimization and of media reports will be combined in this six question index. Personal experiences are hypothesized to have more effect than media experiences and will be weighted to reflect this.

Perception of Incivilities

Neighborhood incivilities or the disorder perspective were measured by self report of perceived levels of various indicators ranked as high, medium or low. Some of these indicators would include: The levels of litter in the streets and yards, the prevalence of graffiti and vandalism in the area, teenagers hanging around the area, the frequency of loud parties and presence of noisy neighbors, presence of strangers in the neighborhood, and the presence of drunks or drug dealers on the street (Box et al., 1988). In previous research, housing, street and lighting conditions have ranged from good to fair and bad to very bad normally based upon an assessment by the interviewer (Wilson, 1985; Donnelly, 1984; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980). For this study, the unique nature of the military housing community removes the relevancy of this measure. Military housing communities are maintained by the government, and there are no vacant or abandoned buildings, lights out, or any of the aforementioned signs of decay. Even yard maintenance,

while the responsibility of the occupant, is checked regularly by a representative of the installation commander, or by the commander him or herself. Measures of personal incivility level will still prove effective however, as the military community is a reflection of the overall national community with different standards of what is acceptable and what is not. Questions to measure these incivility indicators will include responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree for the following statements: I have noisy neighbors. Most of my neighbors keep their homes and yards in good condition (This question will be coded in reverse due to the way it is asked). Juvenile loitering, fighting, cursing, and similar activities are a problem in my neighborhood. Drugs and alcohol are a problem in my neighborhood. My neighbors frequently have loud parties. Vandalism is a problem in my neighborhood. Finally, respondents would be asked to make an assessment of the general condition and direction of the neighborhood: In general, would you say that conditions in your neighborhood are... getting worse, staying about the same, or getting better?

Confidence in the Police

Rather than asking the respondents to rate police confidence as high medium or low, the possible responses were extended to give more definition to the answers. The goal is to receive a clear indicator of this confidence level. The measure is: Would you rate the confidence you have of the

police in your neighborhood as... low, little confidence, medium, some confidence, or high, a lot of confidence?

Fear of Crime

The indicator of the dependent variable, fear of crime would again be self report. To avoid the ambiguity and validity problems accompanying the common measure of fear, an eight point index previously utilized by Smith and Hill (1991a; 1991b), and conforming to suggestions made by Ferraro and LaGrange (1987) will be used. In addition three questions will be added to the index specifically to target fear levels for respondents when they leave the relative safety of their immediate neighborhood. The goal of this measurement is to measure the various facets of fear, to include worry and concern, as opposed to just the visceral type fear previous studies have been limited to. In addition, it is believed this index will maintain validity across gender and race lines. Respondents will be asked to comment on various statements. Possible responses were scaled from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Statements to measure level of fear of crime will include: When I am away from home, I worry about the safety of my property. On base, I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals. Off base, I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals. Even in my own home, I'm not safe from people who want to take what I have. There are some parts of the county that I avoid during the day because of fear of crime.

There are some parts of the county that I avoid at night because of fear of crime. I feel safe going anywhere on base in the daytime. I feel safe going anywhere off base in the daytime. I feel safe going anywhere on base after dark. I feel safe going anywhere off base after dark. Crime is more serious than the newspapers and TV say.

Hypotheses

This study was designed to examine fear of crime and its antecedents, and to do so in a unique environment, the military housing community.

Several hypotheses were formulated to guide this research. First, the literature gives us clear expectations for the bivariate relationships between each of the fully exogenous variables and fear of crime. Fear levels should be highest for women, non-whites, those who live alone, persons with lower educational levels, and lower income. As the military community does not include persons that would be considered elderly, no expectation for age can be given. Second, it is expected that the level of victimization will directly influence fear. A higher perception of vulnerability is also expected to correlate with an increase in the level of fear. It is also expected that a higher perception of incivilities in the neighborhood will correlate with higher fear levels. The effects of vicarious experiences are the least tested in the literature. It is hypothesized that these experiences will positively correlate with fear level. The

hypothesis for confidence in the police will be the inverse of the others: higher confidence levels will lead to lower fear levels.

This research is unique in that it tests reported levels of fear both within the confines of the military community, and reported fear levels for the areas surrounding the bases. It is expected that fear levels will be significantly higher for areas outside the installation. It is also hypothesized that vicarious experiences will have greater correlation with off-base fear levels than with on-base fear levels. In addition to these hypotheses, selected demographic and experience variables will be introduced as controls in a multivariate analysis to look at possible spurious, intervening and interactive relationships.

DATA AND METHODS

Sample

The data for this research were collected from two United States Air Force Bases located in the Southeast, between November 1992 and January 1993. The bases were not selected randomly. Each was chosen because of the size of the installation and its housing population, and its location in either a rural or more metropolitan setting. These installations are thought to be representative of the Air Force bases located in the Southeastern US. It would have been desirable to survey an installation located in a major metropolitan area, but both bases in the Southeast that fit this description, Dobbins, outside Atlanta GA, and MacDill, in Tampa, Florida are in the process of closure. The first, Moody Air Force Base, is located in a rural area, in South-central Georgia, 20 miles from Valdosta, a small city of approximately 37,000. It is a small Air Combat Command base, supporting the F-16 Fighting Falcon. The base does not have any secondary or tertiary missions. There are approximately 3,045 military personnel and 3,723 family members, with 1,654 members and their families residing in on-base quarters.

The second, Tyndall Air Force Base, is located in a gulf coastal/resort area, adjacent to Panama City, Florida. Panama

City is a medium size metropolitan area of about 100,000, including the base population. Tyndall is a large Air Combat Command base with a primary mission supporting the F-15 Eagle. It has a secondary mission as a Numbered Air Force Headquarters, and a tertiary mission of tactical target training that encompasses numerous satellite installations, and a larger population. In addition, there is a minimum security Federal Correctional Facility located on the base. The facility is operated by the Bureau of Prisons, and houses a civilian inmate population. There are approximately 4,700 military personnel and 6,614 family members, with 4,238 members and their families residing on the installation.

Telephone interviews were conducted with 266 residents of military family housing, or the dormitories, age 18 and over. Rosters of all military members assigned to the installation were used to create a population of households. The GW Basic software included in MicroSoft DOS version 5.0 was used to generate a random number as a starting enumeration point for each of the populations. The random number table from Research Methods in Criminal Justice and Criminology (Hagan, 1993), was used to randomly select telephone numbers.

One hundred fifty numbers were selected from Moody AFB. Of that number, 109 persons were interviewed for a completion rate of 73%. Two hundred numbers were selected from Tyndall AFB, and 157 interviewed, for a completion rate of 79%.

Replacement, using random numbers to choose the

replacement number, was used if the telephone number was out of service, or if the respondent did not reside on the installation. Phone calls were completed on weekday evenings, weekdays, and on weekends to overcome possible bias related to working hours and travel habits. Numbers that did not answer, or had an answering machine attached were called a maximum of ten times, but were not replaced. Less than five percent of non-completions were due to refusals.

Prior to the survey, a pretest was conducted using numbers selected at random from Altus AFB in Oklahoma. This also served to train the interviewers who would complete the actual survey. The survey was completed using telephones at The Research Network, an independent research and polling firm in Tallahassee, Florida. The author and a fellow graduate student, Rex Ogle, were present to supervise and monitor all calls. Approximately 25% of the calls were completed by the researchers.

One source of bias in this type of survey is households without telephones. The latest available census data indicate that this is about 5 percent of the general population. Due to the nature of the military population, lack of poverty, and susceptibility to recall for emergencies, households without phones total less than one percent. However, dormitory residents are much less likely than the general population to have personally owned phones. Government owned telephones, capable of receiving calls from any source are located in all

hallways. A number of interviews were completed at these phones, but this bias may still affect the sample in unknown ways. Another common cause of bias in this survey method, unlisted numbers, was not present, as these numbers were included in this roster.

Indices

Fear of Crime was measured with a eight question index. Two separate indexes were developed. The first, to measure on base fear levels, and the second to measure fear of off base areas. In all, eleven questions were asked with the root of two of the questions altered with the words "on-base" or "off-base." Each question was scaled numerically from strongly disagree (0) to Strongly Agree (3). The index contained possible values ranging from zero to twenty four. These values were then collapsed into an ordinal scale ranging from Low to High Fear.

Victimization experience was measured with a sixteen question index. For each, either a value of no (0) was entered, or the actual number of victimizations during the previous twelve months was coded. Each variable within the index was then given a seriousness weight, taken from Smith and Hill (1991a). These weights were used as multipliers when computing the index. The index was then coded into four logical categories ranging from No Victimization through Low, and Moderate, to High Victimization experience.

Incivilities were measured with an unweighted, seven

question index. Responses for each question ranged from Strongly Disagree (0) to Strongly Agree (3). An additive index was computed with values ranging from zero to 21. These were also collapsed into four logical categories from No Perceived Incivilities through High.

Perception of vulnerability was measured with a five question index. Two had values ranging from one through five, two had values from zero through four and one of the questions had values from zero through two. An unweighted additive index was computed with values ranging from zero through twenty. The index was collapsed into a three point scale: Low, Moderate, and High.

Vicarious victimization experience was measured with a seven question index. Four of the questions measured media influence, the remaining three measuring indirect victimization experience through family members (outside the household) and acquaintances. As was mentioned earlier, previous research has found that those experiences related by friends and family have a greater impact. Personal experiences were weighted before an additive index was formed. Values for these experiences were doubled. Separate additive indices were formed for media and indirect victimization experience.

Confidence in the police was measured by a single question as were the exogenous variables.

Analytic Procedure

The primary analytic procedure for this research is Kendall's Tau C, as the key experience variables and dependant variables were ordinal and many of the crosstabulations were asymmetric (Buchanan, 1974). In addition, a significance test was available with this measure of association. A t-Test was used to measure the difference between means of the two dependant variables.

FINDINGS

Before presenting the correlations for the model, descriptive information about the sample and findings is given.

Descriptive Statistics

Exogenous Variables

Table I presents the demographic characteristics of the sample overall, and for each portion of the sample. Overall, of the 266 respondents, 157 or 60% were male and 106 were female. Forty percent reported an income less than \$20,000 per year. Twenty thousand and one to \$50,000 was the most frequently reported income (50%), with ten percent reporting incomes above \$50,001. As is common in survey research, the highest amount of missing cases are in the income category. This was only three percent. The vast majority of the sample indicated the completion of some college work (65%). Twenty percent reported only high school work and 15% indicated completion of a Bachelors degree or higher. The majority of households consisted of three or more persons (71%). Single person households, primarily residing in the dormitories, comprised 15 percent of the sample as did those reporting two member households. Ethnicity was dichotomized as white/non-white. Seventy four percent of the sample was white, and 26%

identified themselves as Black, Asian, Hispanic or other.

Table I. Characteristics of the random sample of residents of military family housing at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA, in percents. (N=266)

| | COMBINED % | MOODY AFB % | TYNDALL AFB % |
|-------------------|------------|-------------|---------------|
| Sex: | | | |
| Male | 60 | 64 | 57 |
| Female | 40 | 36 | 43 |
| Income: | | | |
| < 20K | 41 | 41 | 40 |
| 20001-50K | 51 | 52 | 50 |
| 50001+ | 09 | 07 | 10 |
| Education: | | | |
| High School | 22 | 26 | 20 |
| Some College | 65 | 65 | 65 |
| Bachelors | 13 | 09 | 15 |
| Household: | | | |
| One | 15 | 20 | 11 |
| Two | 15 | 10 | 18 |
| Three+ | 70 | 70 | 71 |
| Ethnicity: | | | |
| White | 74 | 69 | 78 |
| Nonwhite | 26 | 31 | 22 |
| Age: | | | |
| 18-25 | 26 | 24 | 27 |
| 26-35 | 52 | 54 | 50 |
| Over 35 | 23 | 22 | 23 |
| Rank: | | | |
| Enlisted | 89 | 95 | 85 |
| Officer | 11 | 05 | 15 |

As previously mentioned, the military population as a group is young, with few persons remaining on active duty past the age of forty five. Fifty two percent of the sample fell between the ages of 26 and 35. Twenty-six percent indicated they were 18-25 and 23% were over the age of 35. Overall, Commissioned officers made up eleven percent of the sample, which roughly

matches the ratio of the Air Force in general. Officer percentages on Tyndall more closely match the Air Force norm at 15%. Moody AFB housing has only 36 of its 304 housing units, and none of its dormitory spaces, designated for officers. Tyndall has 137 of 933 housing units available for officers. Moody's officer/enlisted ratio in this sample is not reflective of the Air Force as a whole, but it is a true picture of the Moody housing population.

Endogenous Variables

The fear of crime indices range from 0 (no fear) to 24. On-base fear had a mean of 8.5 (sd=3.2). This is significantly lower than found by Smith and Hill (12.4, sd=4.0) with a similar of fear of crime measure for a large statewide sample (N=3109) in North Carolina (1991b). The off-base fear level was much closer to that found by Smith and Hill with a mean of 11.2 (sd=3.9). As in their sample, most respondents express neither extremely high nor low fear levels. Approximately 92% of the sample report moderate to low fear levels on base, while almost 40% report high fear levels off the base.

Thirty three percent (89) of the 266 respondents report at least one victimization experience in the last twelve months. The most frequently mentioned crime was theft of property from outside the home (14%) followed by theft while away from the home (11%). The least frequently mentioned property crime was theft of an automobile (2%). Among the

personal crimes, threat of an attack is the most common (4%) and murder or rape (.3%) the least.

As expected, the remaining endogenous variables were skewed in the direction indicating the lower level of disorder within the military community. Enough variation is present to examine the effects each of the variables has on fear. Almost 50% of the sample perceived incivilities in their community as low, while 6% reported a high perceived level of incivility.

Table II. Index distribution of the random sample of residents of military family housing at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA, in percents. (N=266)

| | High% | Moderate% | Low% | None |
|-------------------|-------|-----------|------|------|
| On Base Fear | 07 | 49 | 44 | -- |
| Off Base Fear | 39 | 40 | 21 | -- |
| Victimization | 12 | 11 | 11 | 67 |
| Incivilities | 06 | 44 | 49 | -- |
| Vulnerability | 16 | 38 | 46 | -- |
| Vicarious Exp | 33 | 56 | 11 | -- |
| Police Confidence | 57 | 36 | 08 | -- |

The index questions measuring incivilities pertained only to the on-base community itself, whereas the perceived vulnerability index could apply to on or off base areas. Forty-six percent of respondents perceived their personal vulnerability as low, 38% felt they were somewhat vulnerable and 16% indicated they felt highly vulnerable to criminal

victimization due to inability to defend against or escape an attacker. Forty-two percent of the sample indicated a high level of exposure to crime or violence in the media, while only 7 percent related personal vicarious experience. Overall, 33% of respondents indicated high level of vicarious experience with crime, 56% reported moderate experience and 11 percent reported low exposure.

The remaining endogenous variable, confidence in the police, was based upon a single question rather than an index. Fifty-seven percent indicated a high level of confidence in the Security Police on their base. Thirty-six percent of base residents rated the confidence they had as medium, some confidence and 8 percent indicated they had little confidence.

Analysis

Table III presents the zero-order correlations among each of the exogenous variables and both fear indices. As expected, sex is the strongest predictor of fear ($t_c = .19$ $p < .001$ on-base and $t_c = .18$ $p < .01$ off-base), though neither relationship is strong. There is also a small but statistically significant positive relationship between income and on base fear ($t_c = .18$ $p < .01$). As hypothesized, education has a negative relationship ($t_c = -.13$ $p < .001$ on-base and $t_c = -.08$ $p < .05$), though again the relation is very small. Household composition was only positively correlated with off base fear ($t_c = .11$ $p < .01$) and had weak predictive power. There is a small but statistically significant relationship

between ethnicity and on base fear ($t_c = .11$ $p < .05$), and no relationship between ethnicity and off-base fear. This coincides with much previous research that has found a limited relationship between race and fear levels.

Though no hypothesis was made for age, the findings here correspond with those of Gomme (1988) in his sample of Canadian adults.

Table III. Association (Kendall's Tau C) between selected demographic variables and fear of crime indexes for a random sample of residents of military family housing at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA. (N=266)

| | ON-BASE FEAR | OFF-BASE FEAR |
|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Sex | .19 ^c | .18 ^b |
| Income | .10 ^b | -.03 |
| Education | -.13 ^c | -.08 ^a |
| Number in household | .07 | .11 ^b |
| Ethnicity | .11 ^a | .08 |
| Age | -.09 ^a | -.01 |
| Officer/Enlisted | -.07 ^a | -.04 |
| Base | .05 | .06 |

a $p = < .05$

b $p = < .01$

c $p = < .001$

Gomme found the young to be more fearful than older segments of the sample, and hypothesized that the young Canadian Adults may be a reflection of the fact that many of the respondents have younger children for whose safety they are concerned.

A small negative relationship was found between military status and on base fear. This may be more a relationship of education levels than status, as all military officers must have at least a Baccalaureate degree. No relationship was found between installation of assignment and fear.

Table IV presents zero order correlations among the experience indices and fear of crime. Each of the endogenous variables is significantly correlated with fear in the hypothesized direction. Perception of vulnerability appears

Table IV. Associations (Kendall's Tau C) between selected experience variable indexes and fear of crime indexes for a random sample of military family housing residents at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA. (N=266)

| | ON-BASE FEAR | OFF-BASE FEAR |
|----------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Victimization Experience | .15 ^b | .08 ^b |
| Perception of Incivilities | .22 ^c | NA |
| Perceived Vulnerability | .16 ^c | .15 ^b |
| Vicarious Experience | .09 ^a | .15 ^b |

a $p = < .05$

b $p = < .01$

c $p = < .001$

to be the only index with the same predictive power both on and off the installation. The strongest predictor of fear appears to be perceived incivilities ($t_c = .22$ $p < .001$), though this measure only applies to on-base fear.

The higher correlation seen between vicarious experience and off-base fear versus that between vicarious experience and

on-base fear may be partially explained by previous reports that persons often view media reports of crime as being "out there" rather than in their own neighborhoods. In addition, the base media does not report on crime, other than a periodic report of disciplinary actions taken against military members after conviction by Courts Marshal or administrative discipline. Unlike civilian media reports, these do not give details of the incident; rather, the crime the individual was convicted of as delineated in the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

Examining the effects of vicarious experience further, Table V shows the relationship between on and off base fear for the separate indices of media and personal influence, controlling for the exogenous variables. Looking first at the zero order correlations, contrary to what is found most often in the literature, media influence appears to be a stronger predictor of fear than personal experiences. The strongest relationship was found between media influence and off-base fear levels ($t_c = .20$ $p < .001$), this is consistent, as reported earlier, with findings that media reports are happening outside the immediate neighborhood. When controlling for gender, females appear to be much more affected by vicarious experience, the correlation between personal experiences and on-base fear level increasing significantly. The strongest relationship was for those persons who report a combined household income greater than \$50,000 ($t_c = .69$ $p < .001$ on-

base) and ($t_c = .42$ $p < .01$ off base) for the combined index.

Stronger relationships were also found for those persons

Table V. Association (Kendall's Tau C) between Vicarious Experience Indexes and Fear of crime Indexes controlling for Sex, Income, Education, Number in Household, Ethnicity, Age, Rank, and Installation, for a random sample of military family housing residents at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA. (N=266)

| | ON-BASE FEAR | | | OFF-BASE FEAR | | |
|----------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | COM | MED | PER | COM | MED | PER |
| ZERO ORDER | .09 ^a | .11 ^b | .05 | .15 ^b | .20 ^c | .09 ^a |
| Sex: | | | | | | |
| Male | .02 | .07 | .00 | .11 ^a | .18 ^b | .07 |
| Female | .20 ^b | .17 ^b | .13 ^a | .22 ^b | .25 ^c | .15 ^a |
| Income: | | | | | | |
| < 20K | .14 ^a | .09 | .09 | .11 | .23 ^b | .06 |
| 20001-50K | .04 | .15 ^b | -.01 | .14 ^a | .16 ^b | .10 |
| >50001 | .69 ^c | .09 | .35 ^a | .42 ^b | .30 ^a | .21 |
| Education: | | | | | | |
| High School | .10 | .12 | .11 | .06 | .24 ^b | .03 |
| Some College | .05 | .11 ^a | .01 | .13 ^a | .17 ^b | .08 |
| Bachelors | .40 ^c | .12 | .22 ^a | .41 ^b | .23 ^a | .30 ^b |
| Household: | | | | | | |
| One | .22 ^a | .06 | .28 ^b | .15 | .28 ^b | .21 ^a |
| Two | -.06 | .24 ^a | -.15 | .08 | .20 | .00 |
| Three | .11 ^a | .09 | .05 | .16 ^b | .16 ^b | .09 ^a |
| Ethnicity: | | | | | | |
| White | .08 | .10 ^a | .03 | .13 ^b | .17 ^b | .07 |
| Nonwhite | .15 | .17 ^a | .11 | .20 ^a | .28 ^b | .15 ^a |
| Age: | | | | | | |
| 18-25 | .15 | .16 ^a | .12 | .17 ^a | .30 ^a | .18 ^a |
| 26-35 | .01 | .07 | -.05 | .10 | .10 | .04 |
| 35+ | .22 ^b | .18 ^a | .21 ^b | .23 ^b | .36 ^a | .15 |
| Rank: | | | | | | |
| Officer | .09 | .13 | .00 | .15 | .21 | .07 |
| Enlisted | .10 ^a | .10 ^a | .05 | .15 ^b | .19 ^a | .10 ^a |
| Installation: | | | | | | |
| Moody GA | .15 ^a | .07 | .14 ^b | .18 ^b | .20 ^b | .15 ^b |
| Tyndall FL | .06 | .14 ^b | -.01 | .13 ^a | .20 ^a | .06 |
| a | $p = < .05$ | | | COM: Combined index | | |
| b | $p = < .01$ | | | MED: Media Index | | |
| c | $p = < .001$ | | | PER: Personal Index | | |

reporting at least a bachelors degree ($t_c = .40$ $p < .001$ on-base) and ($t_c = .41$ $p < .01$ off base). For those persons over

35 years of age, there appears to be a strong relationship between media reports of crime and off-base fear levels ($t_c = .36$ $p < .05$).

Confidence in the police, yielded results as anticipated.

Table VI. Association (Kendall's Tau C) between Confidence in the Police and On-base Fear controlling for Sex, Income, Education, Number in Household, Ethnicity, Age, Rank, and Installation, for a random sample of military family housing residents at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA. (N=266)

| | ON-BASE FEAR |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| ZERO ORDER | -.16 ^c |
| Sex: | |
| Male | -.15 ^b |
| Female | -.15 ^a |
| Income: | |
| < 20K | -.23 ^b |
| 20001-50K | -.05 |
| >50001 | -.20 |
| Education: | |
| High School | -.15 |
| Some College | -.11 ^b |
| Bachelors | -.21 ^a |
| Household: | |
| One | -.52 ^c |
| Two | .01 |
| Three | -.15 ^b |
| Ethnicity: | |
| White | -.20 ^c |
| Nonwhite | -.05 |
| Age: | |
| 18-25 | -.16 ^a |
| 26-35 | -.22 ^c |
| 35+ | .06 |
| Rank: | |
| Officer | -.13 ^b |
| Enlisted | -.39 ^b |
| Installation: | |
| Moody GA | -.09 |
| Tyndall FL | -.20 ^c |
| a | p = < .05 |
| b | p = < .01 |
| c | p = < .001 |

Table VI shows the zero order correlation and controls for

each of the exogenous variables. Police confidence seems to be the strongest predictor of fear for those persons living alone ($t_c = .36$ $p < .05$). The relationship is also much stronger for enlisted personnel. This could be reflective of the fact that for this sample, those persons living alone were only enlisted, as there are no quarters on either installation for bachelor officers. Looking at the effect that installation has on the association, the relationship disappears for Moody AFB, and grows stronger at Tyndall. This could be a result of the fact that Moody housing is in one area, within the confines of the base proper while Tyndall housing is in multiple areas, some of which are not fenced and are more accessible to civilians. Garafalo (1979) suggests that simple visibility of the police may help reduce fear levels. With a much larger area for the Tyndall force to patrol, it would be logical to assume they might be less visible in the housing areas. Further study could explore this possibility.

As mentioned previously, some studies have found a relationship between victimization experience and fear of crime (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Gomme, 1986; Garofalo, 1979; Stafford and Galle, 1984; and Skogan 1986), while others have found little difference in fear between victims and non-victims (Taylor and Hale, 1980; Baumer, 1979), while still others, notably Box et al., (1988), have only found victimization to correlate with higher fear levels with

intervening variables. Table VII shows correlations between the victimization index controlling for the effects of the other three experience indices. For incivilities, these results coincide with the findings of Box et al., (1988). For those persons with a low perception of incivilities, there is no relationship between victimization experience and fear.

Table VII. Associations (Kendall's Tau C) between Victimization Experience Index and On-Base and Off-Base Fear Indexes controlling for selected experience variable indexes, for a random sample of military family housing residents at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA. (N-266)

| | ON-BASE FEAR | OFF-BASE FEAR |
|----------------|------------------|------------------|
| ZERO ORDER | .15 ^a | .08 |
| Incivilities: | | |
| Low | .03 | -- |
| Moderate | .12 ^a | -- |
| High | .49 ^b | -- |
| Vulnerability: | | |
| Low | .10 | .04 |
| Moderate | .08 | .09 |
| High | .20 ^a | .12 |
| Vicarious: | | |
| Low | -.14 | -.18 |
| Moderate | .14 ^b | .11 ^a |
| High | .09 | -.01 |

a $p = < .05$

b $p = < .01$

c $p = < .001$

While there is a relationship, albeit a weak one, for those persons who perceive a moderate level of incivilities. There is a strong relationship ($t_c = .49$ $p < .01$) for those persons who perceive a high level of incivilities in their neighborhood. Much of the literature indicate persons who have

been the victim of a crime take more precautions, or neutralize the negative effects of being victimized. It is frequently hypothesized that persons who perceive their environment as uncomfortable or dangerous are constantly reminded of what happened or that it could happen again. There is also a slight increase in the strength of the relationship between victimization experience and on-base fear level ($t_c = .20$ $p < .05$) for those persons who feel they are highly vulnerable. It seems logical to expect those persons who see themselves as vulnerable to become more fearful after an actual victimization experience, though there is not a strong change in the association.

Table VIII presents the correlations among each of the experience indices and on-base fear of crime levels controlling for the exogenous variables. Sex, the most powerful predictor of fear among the exogenous variables does not affect the relationship appreciably. For those persons reporting an annual household income over \$50,001 previous victimization is a fairly strong predictor of fear ($t_c = .41$ $p < .05$). A stronger relationship is also seen between perception of vulnerability and fear for those persons reporting incomes under \$20,000 ($t_c = .29$ $p < .05$). The strength of the relationship between fear and vulnerability is also increased for those person having only high school level educations. This ties in with previous studies indicating that those with less means, often a result of less education,

Table VIII. Associations (Kendall's Tau C) between selected experience variable indexes and On-Base Fear levels controlling for exogenous variables for a random sample of military family housing residents at Tyndall AFB FL and Moody AFB GA. (N=266)

| | VICTIM | INCIVILITIES | VULNERABILITY |
|----------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| ZERO ORDER | .15 ^b | .22 ^c | .16 ^c |
| Sex: | | | |
| Male | .08 | .22 ^c | .14 ^b |
| Female | .18 ^b | .20 ^b | .07 |
| Income: | | | |
| <20000 | .19 ^b | .22 ^b | .29 ^c |
| 20001-50000 | .04 | .16 ^b | .07 |
| >50001 | .41 ^a | .31 | .27 |
| Education: | | | |
| High School | .10 | .11 | .34 ^c |
| Some College | .13 ^b | .20 ^c | .10 ^a |
| Bachelor+ | .11 | .32 ^b | .12 |
| Household: | | | |
| One | .25 ^a | .26 ^a | .16 |
| Two | .02 | .08 | -.01 |
| Three + | .11 ^a | .27 ^c | .19 ^c |
| Ethnicity: | | | |
| White | .14 ^b | .24 ^c | .14 ^b |
| Nonwhite | .09 | .13 | .23 ^b |
| Age: | | | |
| 18-25 | .15 ^a | .15 | .19 ^a |
| 26-35 | .06 | .17 ^b | .15 ^b |
| over 35 | .16 ^a | .42 ^c | .12 |
| Rank: | | | |
| Officer | .20 ^a | .13 | .20 |
| Enlisted | .09 ^a | .19 ^c | .15 ^b |
| Installation: | | | |
| Moody GA | .07 | .17 ^b | .15 ^a |
| Tyndall FL | .15 ^a | .25 ^c | .18 ^b |

a p = < .05

b p = < .01

c p = < .001

will perceive themselves as less able to deal with the consequences of victimization. This explanation has some weakness for this sample, as all military members have access to complete medical care, though the replacement of property

lost in theft or robbery would be more difficult for those of limited means. Looking at the effect of household composition, it is noteworthy that the relationship between victimization experience and fear is eliminated for those persons in a two member household. Part of this may be explained by the lack of children to be concerned for as posited by Gomme (1988), while the slight increase in strength for persons living alone has been often reported in the literature. Further research would be needed to explore the finding that two person households as a control eliminates the relationship between fear and each of the experience indices. Finally, age serves to strengthen the predictive power of incivilities. Much of the literature points out that older persons express more of a desire for order, and are much more likely to take note of and be influenced by signs of incivility and disorder. Though the oldest group in this sample is younger by at least 20 years than that normally examined by researchers, this finding does give support to the argument.

CONCLUSIONS

A model of the antecedents of fear of crime has been presented, discussed and evaluated using data gathered from two Air Force bases in the Southwestern United States. As found by most previous studies of fear of crime, the major conclusion that can be drawn is that fear of crime is not a simple reflection of previous victimization experience or likelihood of being victimized, but is based upon many influences, some obviously yet to be isolated. As found in previous research, all of the relationships occurred in the expected direction but none had great predictive power. Because fear of crime is primarily a visceral fear, measures that concentrate on individual perceptions and characteristics viewed in the context of the environment hold the most explanatory promise.

The motivation for fear of crime research is that it may be translated into practical policies for reducing such fear. Much of the previous research has indicated that each of the posited antecedents of fear is affected by the level of incivility or the disorder perspective. This research provided a unique opportunity to explore the correlates of fear in an environment where disorder is minimal. As expected, fear levels were much lower within the military

community than are found in the general population, however, it was found that when members of the military community leave the relative safety of the installation, concern about the possibility of criminal victimization increases dramatically.

From this study, three points of possible intervention emerge. First, order maintenance can have an effect on fear and the perception of safety. Clearly, even members of an orderly environment are sensitive to neighborhood incivilities. Second, is confidence in the police. To many persons who are afraid, the police could become a powerful ally simply by their visibility and professional conduct. While many persons may have a poor view of the working of the criminal justice system as a whole, the police officer is the member they are most likely to see or need. It is ironic that this confidence may depend less upon whether the police are an effective crime fighting force (Box et al., 1988; Kinsey et al., 1986) than on whether they are available when needed to keep a strong sense of public order. Reiner (1985) has argued that the traditional role of policing is one of restoring order rather than solving crimes, and this can only be accomplished when the police have the confidence of members of the community. Third, media reports do seem to have an effect on fear, though this effect varies among groups. While control of media reports is neither possible nor desirable, it has been suggested that education on the realities of the likelihood of criminal victimization within the community

might serve as an effective tool for reducing fear.

Gomme (1986) argues that there may be one negative effect of reducing fear levels. Increasing confidence among citizens might lead to a concomitant escalation in carelessness. Reducing fear while crime rates continue unabated might in fact increase the incidence of criminal victimization. He suggests mechanisms would need to be in place to ensure that alternative stimuli are available to keep community members aware and reasonably cautious.

While the influences on fear levels are varied, policy makers both within the military, and in the general population, can take steps to reduce fear levels. Continued efforts at educating community members on the need to take reasonable precautions to protect themselves and their property, efforts to reduce crime levels, maintaining order, and providing a professional, service oriented police force will serve to reduce fear of crime and improve the quality of life.

APPENDIX A

US Air Force Survey Control Number: 92-68

SURVEY COVER LETTER

Good morning/afternoon, I am _____. We're calling with permission from the installation commander, gathering data on crime perceptions on Air Force bases. Your name will not be used.

Would you have a few minutes to complete a survey?

First, could you tell me if you live in Military Family Housing or in a Dormitory?

Answers to General Questions:

- The Installation Commander is Colonel Brown/Colonel Grigsby.
- Your number was randomly selected to be included in the survey. - Participation is voluntary.
- The survey is being supervised by Captains Michael Trapp and Rex Ogle, Air Force Institute of Technology Graduate Students.

SURVEY

1. Base _____
 - Tyndall (1001 - 1200) (904 Area Code)
 - Moody (2001 - 2200) (912 Area Code)
2. Would you say that you watch television news...
 - 0) Never
 - 1) Rarely
 - 2) Occasionally
 - 3) Daily
 - 9) Missing Case
3. How often do you read stories about crime in the newspaper...
 - 0) Never
 - 1) Rarely
 - 2) Occasionally
 - 3) Daily
 - 9) Missing Case
4. How often do you watch one or more police/crime shows such as "COPS", "America's Most Wanted", or "FBI: The Untold Stories"?
 - 0) Never
 - 1) Rarely
 - 2) Occasionally
 - 3) Daily
 - 9) Missing Case
5. Do you know anyone in your neighborhood that has been the victim of a crime in the last twelve months?
 - 0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing
6. Has a member of your family, NOT LIVING WITH YOU, been the victim of a violent crime in the last twelve months?
 - 0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing
7. Has a personal friend or co-worker been the victim of a violent crime in the last twelve months?
 - 0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing Case

For the next two questions, would you say that you strongly agree, Agree, don't know, disagree, or strongly disagree.

8. I believe that I would be able to protect myself from an attacker?

- 0) Strongly Agree
- 1) Agree
- 2) Don't Know
- 3) Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree
- 9) Missing

9. If attacked, I believe I would be able to escape?

- 0) Strongly Agree
- 1) Agree
- 2) Don't Know
- 3) Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree
- 9) Missing

10. How many neighbors would you say that you know on a first name basis?

- 0) Zero
- 1) One
- 2) Two
- 3) Three
- 4) Four
- 5) Five or more
- 9) Missing Case

11. Would you rate the confidence you have of the police in your neighborhood as...

- 0) Low, little confidence
- 1) Medium, some confidence
- 2) High, a lot of confidence
- 9) Missing

12. In the next question, I am going to ask you to estimate your own risk of being the victim of a crime in the next twelve months on a scale of zero to five with zero being certain you will not be and five being certain to.

- 0) Certain not to
- 1) Not very likely
- 2) Somewhat likely
- 3) Likely to
- 4) Very likely
- 5) Certain to
- 9) Missing

In following section, please indicate whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree, or strongly agree with the statement.

13. I have noisy neighbors?

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

***** CODED IN REVERSE *****

14. Most of your neighbors keep their homes and yards in good condition?

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

15. Juvenile loitering, fighting, cursing, and similar activities are a problem in my neighborhood?

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

16. Drugs and alcohol are a problem in my neighborhood?

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

17. My neighbors frequently have loud parties?

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

18. Vandalism is a problem in my neighborhood?

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

19. In general, would you say that conditions in your neighborhood are...

- 0) Getting Worse
- 1) Staying about the same
- 2) Getting better
- 9) Missing Case

Next, I'll name ten crimes. For each, please indicate whether, in your neighborhood, It is not a problem, It is a problem, or It is a Serious Problem.

20. Burglary

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

21. Illegal Drugs

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

22. Drunk Driving

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

23. Rape

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

24. Assault

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

25. Robbery

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

26. Theft or Larceny

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

27. Trespassing

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

28. Vandalism

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

29. Obscene or Threatening Phone Calls

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

In the following section, please indicate the number of times any of the following types of victimization have occurred to either you or a household member:

30. During the past 12 months, did anyone damage, destroy or attempt to destroy your home or any property around your home?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

31. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal or try to steal a car, truck, or motorcycle owned by you or other members of your household?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

32. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal anything from inside your home, such as a stereo, TV, jewelry, gun, or purse, etc.,?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

33. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal anything that is kept outside your home such as a bicycle, or a garden hose?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

34. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal parts attached to a car or truck owned by any member of your household, such as a battery, hubcaps, or a tapedeck?
- 0) No
If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case
35. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have anything stolen from them while they were away from home, for instance, at work, school, in a theater, in a restaurant, or while traveling?
- 0) No
If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case
36. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have a purse or wallet snatched or pockets picked?
- 0) No
If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case
37. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have something stolen from inside a car or truck, such as packages or clothing?
- 0) No
If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case
38. During the past 12 months, did anyone break into or somehow illegally get into your house, apartment, garage, or another building on your property?
- 0) No
If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case
39. During the past 12 months, did you find a door jimmied, a lock forced, or other signs of attempted break-in (do not include second home, business property, or camps)?
- 0) No
If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

During the past 12 months, were you or any member of your household a victim of any of the following violent crimes?

40. Did anyone take something or attempt to take something directly from you or any member of your household by using force, such as a stick-up, mugging, or threat?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

41. Did anyone beat-up, attack, or hit you or any member of your household?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

42. Were you or any member of your household knifed, shot at, or attacked with some other weapon by anyone?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

43. Did anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten you or any member of your household with a knife, gun, or some other weapon?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

44. Did anyone rape or attempt to rape you or any member of your household?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

45. Were any members of your household murdered?

- 0) No
- If Yes, How many times _____
- 9) Missing Case

Please indicate whether you Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, or Strongly Agree with the following questions:

46. When I am away from home, I worry about the safety of my property.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

47. On base, I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

48. Off base, I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

49. Even in my own home, I'm not safe from people who want to take what I have.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

50. There are some parts of the county that I avoid during the day because of fear of crime.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

51. There are some parts of the county that I avoid at night because of fear of crime.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

***** CODING CHANGE *****

52. I feel safe going anywhere on base in the daytime.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

53. I feel safe going anywhere off base in the daytime.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

54. I feel safe going anywhere on base after dark.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

55. I feel safe going anywhere off base after dark.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

***** CODING CHANGE *****

56. Crime is more serious than the newspapers and TV say.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

57. Indicate respondent's gender.

- 0) Male 1) Female 9) Missing Case

58. Please tell me which category best corresponds with your household's total annual income?

- 0) less than 10,000
- 1) \$10,001 to 20,000
- 2) \$20,001 to 30,000
- 3) \$30,001 to 40,000
- 5) \$40,001 to 50,000
- 6) \$50,001 to 60,000
- 7) \$60,000 or more
- 9) Missing Case

59. Please select the category which best describes your education level?

- 0) Some High School
- 1) High School Diploma
- 2) Some College
- 3) 2-Year College Degree
- 4) 4-Year College Degree
- 5) Some Graduate School
- 6) Master's Degree
- 7) Post-Graduate Work
- 9) Missing Case

60. How many persons, including yourself, live in your household?

- 1) One
- 2) Two
- 3) Three
- 4) Four
- 5) Five or more
- 9) Missing Case

61. Which category best describes your ethnic origin?

- 0) White
- 1) Black
- 2) Hispanic
- 3) Asian
- 4) Other
- 9) Missing Case

62. As of your last birthday, would your age category be...

- 0) 18-25
- 1) 26-35
- 2) 36-45
- 3) 46-55
- 4) Over 55
- 5) Missing Case

63. Is the military member of your family:

- 0) Enlisted
- 1) Officer
- 2) Both members are military, both enlisted
- 3) Both members are military, both officer
- 4) Both members are military, one is enlisted, one is officer
- 9) Missing

That concludes the survey. Thank-you for your time and help in completing the questionnaire. Your participation means a lot to this research.

APPENDIX B

CODEBOOK

| Variable Number | Variable Location | Description and Codes |
|----------------------|-------------------|---|
| 1 | 1-4 | Base/Unit Identification Number - Tyndall (Cases 1001 through 1200) - Moody (Cases 2001 through 2200) |
| Vicarious Experience | | |
| 2 | 5-6 | Watch television news 0) Never 1) Rarely 2) Seldom 3) Occasionally 4) Daily 9) Missing case |
| 3 | 7-8 | Read about crime 0) Never 1) Rarely 2) Seldom 3) Occasionally 4) Daily 9) Missing case |
| 4 | 9-10 | Watch police/crime shows 0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing case |
| 5 | 11-12 | Know crime victim 0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing case |
| 6 | 13-14 | Member of family, not living in household, victim of violent crime 0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing case |

| | | |
|---|-------|---|
| 7 | 15-16 | Friend or co-worker victim of violent crime |
|---|-------|---|

- 0) No
1) Yes
9) Missing case

Perception of Vulnerability

8 17-18 Able to defend against attack

- 0) Yes
1) No
9) Missing case

9 19-20 Able to escape if attacked

- 0) Yes
1) No
9) Missing case

| | | |
|----|-------|------------------------------------|
| 10 | 21-22 | Know neighbors on first name basis |
|----|-------|------------------------------------|

- ```
0) Few
1) Some
2) Most
9) Missing case
```

| 11 | 23-24 | Confidence in police |
|----|-------|----------------------|
|----|-------|----------------------|

- ```
0) Low
1) High
9) Missing case
```

| | | |
|----|-------|-----------------------|
| 12 | 25-26 | Risk of victimization |
|----|-------|-----------------------|

- 0) Certain not to
- 1) Not very likely
- 2) Somewhat likely
- 3) Likely to
- 4) Very likely
- 5) Certain to
- 9) Missing case

Perceived Community Incivility

13 27-28 Noisy neighbors

- ```
0) No
1) Yes
9) Missing case
```



- |    |       |                              |
|----|-------|------------------------------|
| 14 | 29-30 | Condition of homes and yards |
|    |       | 0) Very good                 |
|    |       | 1) Good                      |
|    |       | 2) Average                   |
|    |       | 3) Poor                      |
|    |       | 4) Very poor                 |
|    |       | 9) Missing case              |
| 15 | 31-32 | Problem juveniles            |
|    |       | 0) No                        |
|    |       | 1) Yes                       |
|    |       | 9) Missing case              |
| 16 | 33-34 | Drugs and alcohol problem    |
|    |       | 0) No                        |
|    |       | 1) Yes                       |
|    |       | 9) Missing case              |
| 17 | 35-36 | Neighbors have loud parties  |
|    |       | 0) No                        |
|    |       | 1) Yes                       |
|    |       | 9) Missing case              |
| 18 | 37-38 | Vandalism a problem          |
|    |       | 0) No                        |
|    |       | 1) Yes                       |
|    |       | 9) Missing case              |
| 19 | 39-40 | Neighborhood status          |
|    |       | 0) Getting worse             |
|    |       | 1) Staying about the same    |
|    |       | 2) Getting better            |
|    |       | 9) Missing case              |

**Perceived Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood**

- |    |       |                      |
|----|-------|----------------------|
| 20 | 41-42 | Burglary             |
|    |       | 0) Not a problem     |
|    |       | 1) Problem           |
|    |       | 2) A serious problem |
|    |       | 9) Missing case      |

|    |       |                  |                                                                           |
|----|-------|------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 21 | 43-44 | Illegal drugs    | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |
| 22 | 45-46 | Drunk driving    | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |
| 23 | 47-48 | Rape             | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |
| 24 | 49-50 | Assault          | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |
| 25 | 51-52 | Robbery          | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |
| 26 | 53-54 | Theft or larceny | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |
| 27 | 55-56 | Trespassing      | 0) Not a problem<br>1) Problem<br>2) A serious problem<br>9) Missing case |

- |                          |       |                                                                               |
|--------------------------|-------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 28                       | 57-58 | Vandalism                                                                     |
|                          |       | 0) Not a problem                                                              |
|                          |       | 1) Problem                                                                    |
|                          |       | 2) A serious problem                                                          |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |
| 29                       | 59-60 | Obscene or threatening phone calls                                            |
|                          |       | 0) Not a problem                                                              |
|                          |       | 1) Problem                                                                    |
|                          |       | 2) A serious problem                                                          |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |
| Victimization Experience |       |                                                                               |
| 30                       | 61-62 | Anyone attempt to destroy, destroy, or damage home or property around home    |
|                          |       | 0) No                                                                         |
|                          |       | 1) Yes                                                                        |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |
| 31                       | 63-64 | Anyone steal or try to steal car, truck, or motorcycle belonging to household |
|                          |       | 0) No                                                                         |
|                          |       | 1) Yes                                                                        |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |
| 32                       | 65-66 | Anything stolen from inside home                                              |
|                          |       | 0) No                                                                         |
|                          |       | 1) Yes                                                                        |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |
| 33                       | 67-68 | Anything stolen from outside home                                             |
|                          |       | 0) No                                                                         |
|                          |       | 1) Yes                                                                        |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |
| 34                       | 69-70 | Stolen parts to car or truck                                                  |
|                          |       | 0) No                                                                         |
|                          |       | 1) Yes                                                                        |
|                          |       | 9) Missing case                                                               |

- 35            71-72            Anything stolen while away from home
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case
- 36            73-74            Purse or wallet snatched or pockets  
                         picked
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case
- 37            75-76            Something stolen from inside car or  
                         truck
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case
- 38            77-78            Anyone break into home or garage
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case
- 39            79-80            Found door jimmied, lock forced, or  
                         other signs of attempted break-in
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case
- 40            81-82            Anyone take or attempt to take something  
                         by force from household member
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case
- 41            83-84            Anyone beat-up, attack, or hit member of  
                         household
- 0) No  
                         1) Yes  
                         9) Missing case

|    |       |                                                                                 |
|----|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 42 | 85-86 | Member of household knifed, shot at, or<br>attacked with other weapon by anyone |
|----|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

- 0) No  
1) Yes  
9) Missing case

|    |       |                                                              |
|----|-------|--------------------------------------------------------------|
| 43 | 87-88 | Anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten household with weapon |
|----|-------|--------------------------------------------------------------|

- 0) No  
1) Yes  
9) Missing case

44            89-90            Anyone rape or attempt to rape member of household

- ```
0) No
1) Yes
9) Missing case
```

| | | |
|----|-------|------------------------------|
| 45 | 91-92 | Member of household murdered |
|----|-------|------------------------------|

- 0) No
1) Yes
9) Missing case

Fear of Crime

| | | |
|----|-------|---|
| 46 | 93-94 | When away from home, worry about safety of property |
|----|-------|---|

- ```
0) No
1) Yes
9) Missing case
```

47            95-96            On base, worry about personal safety  
                                 from crime and criminals

- 0) No  
1) Yes  
9) Missing case

48            97-98            Off base, worry about personal safety  
                                 from crime and criminals

- ```
0) No
1) Yes
9) Missing case
```

- | | | |
|----|---------|--|
| 49 | 99-100 | Home not safe from people who want to take property |
| | | 0) No |
| | | 1) Yes |
| | | 9) Missing case |
| 50 | 101-102 | Avoid some parts of county during day due to fear of crime |
| | | 0) No |
| | | 1) Yes |
| | | 9) Missing case |
| 51 | 117-118 | Avoid some parts of county at night due to fear of crime |
| | | 0) No |
| | | 1) Yes |
| | | 9) Missing case |
| 52 | 119-120 | Feel safe going anywhere on base, daytime |
| | | 0) Yes |
| | | 1) No |
| | | 9) Missing case |
| 53 | 121-122 | Feel safe going anywhere off base, daytime |
| | | 0) Yes |
| | | 1) No |
| | | 9) Missing case |
| 54 | 123-124 | Feel safe going anywhere on base, night |
| | | 0) Yes |
| | | 1) No |
| | | 9) Missing case |
| 55 | 125-126 | Feel safe going anywhere off base, night |
| | | 0) Yes |
| | | 1) No |
| | | 9) Missing case |

56 127-128 Crime more serious than newspapers and
TV say

- 0) No
- 1) Yes
- 9) Missing case

Demographics

57 129-130 Gender

- 0) Male
- 1) Female
- 9) Missing case

58 131-132 Income

- 4) less than \$10,000
- 3) \$10,001-30,000
- 2) \$30,001-50,000
- 1) \$50,001-70,000
- 0) \$70,001 +
- 9) Missing case

59 133-135 Education

- Actual years coded
- 9) Missing case

60 136-137 Number in household

- Actual number coded
- 9) Missing case

61 138-139 Ethnic origin

- 0) White
- 1) Black
- 2) Hispanic
- 3) Asian
- 4) Other
- 9) Missing case

62 140-141 Age

- 0) 18-25
- 1) 26-35
- 2) 36-45
- 3) 46-55
- 4) Over 55
- 9) Missing case

63

142-143

Military status

- 0) Enlisted
- 1) Commissioned
- 2) Enlisted and Commissioned
- 9) Missing case

APPENDIX C

31 August 1992

Colonel Raymond E. Trusz
Commander, 347 Support Group
Moody AFB, GA 31699-5000

Dear Colonel Trusz

Captain Rex Ogle and I request your permission to conduct a research project on Moody Air Force Base. We are security police officers currently assigned to the Air Force Institute of Technology/CIRK, Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio 45433, working on our Masters degree at Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida. If approved, we plan to collect data concerning perceptions of crime from two Air Force installations in the southeast (Moody and Tyndall). We will contact a sample of residents via random telephone interviews beginning in October 1992.

Should you approve this request, respondents will be randomly selected by a computerized process. Names and addresses will not be taken nor used at any time. The telephone interviews will be conducted by Captain Ogle and I using the tele-direct system and facilities of the Research Network located in Tallahassee, Florida. Each respondent will be given a brief explanation of the research, informed that you have been contacted and approved the project, and informed that participation is voluntary. Only after consent has been obtained will the interview proceed.

Our survey instrument (Attachment 1) collects data on demographics, direct and indirect victimization, vulnerability, perception of crime seriousness and fear of criminal victimization which have been widely used in previous empirical research. In fact, all of the survey questions have been taken from the most current empirical literature on the subject, and published in refereed journals. In addition to your approval, the survey must be approved by the Human Subjects Research Committee, Florida State University; Air Force Institute of Technology; and the Air Force Military Personnel Center. Both AFIT and AFMPC require your approval prior to considering our proposal.

If you should have any other questions that we have not covered, we'll be glad to meet with you in person or you can call: Captain

Ogle (904) 893-0822 or myself (904) 893-8598.

Sincerely

Michael I. Trapp, Captain, USAF
6609 Donerail Trail
Tallahassee, FL 32308

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Captain Michael I. Trapp, United States Air Force was born July 10, 1957, at Sulphur Springs Texas. A graduate of Lakewood High School, Lakewood Colorado, he has served in the Air Force since August 1975. He holds an Associate of Applied Science in Criminal Justice from the Community College of the Air Force and a Bachelor of Science in History from Utah State University.

Positions held include: Law Enforcement Instructor, United States Air Force Police Academy, Lackland AFB Texas; Flight Security Officer and Commander, Emergency Service Team (EST), Ellsworth Air Force Base, South Dakota; Shift Commander and EST Commander, Hahn Air Base, Federal Republic of Germany; Assistant Operations Officer, Second Security Police Squadron, Barksdale AFB, Louisiana; and Chief of Security Police Operations, Headquarters Eighth Air Force, Barksdale AFB, Louisiana. He is currently serving as the Commander and Chief of Security Police, Soesterberg Air Base, The Netherlands.

Captain Trapp is married to the former Linda Kay Owen of Athens, Texas. They have two children, Amber, age 13 and Aaron, age 12.